

THE INFORMATION IN CONTINGENCY TABLES -
AN APPLICATION OF INFORMATION-THEORETIC CONCEPTS
TO THE ANALYSIS OF CONTINGENCY TABLES

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by

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The Information in Contingency Tables -
An Application of Information-Theoretic Concepts
to the Analysis of Contingency Tables

by

C. T. Ireland⁽¹⁾ and S. Kullback⁽²⁾

1. Introduction

The primary purpose of this paper is to present an exposition of the methodology underlying the analysis of the information in contingency tables. We shall stress the concepts, techniques, analyses and inferences without entering into extensive technical statistical proofs or detailed references to the bibliography at the end.

It is useful to note that we are concerned with an aspect of multivariate (multiple variates) analysis with particular application to qualitative or categorical as well as quantitative variables. The basic data we deal with are counts in multiway cross-classifications or multiway contingency tables. Multiway contingency tables, or cross-classifications of vectors of discrete random variables provide a useful approach to the analysis of multivariate discrete data.

As we shall see, the analytic procedures serve to bring out various interrelationships among the classificatory variables in a multiway cross-classification or contingency table in many dimensions. Classical problems in the historical development of the analysis of contingency

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tables concerned themselves with such questions as the independence or conditional independence of the classificatory variables, or homogeneity or conditional homogeneity of the classificatory variables over time or space, for example. Such classical problems turn out to be special cases of the techniques we shall discuss. These techniques result in analyses which are essentially regression type analyses. As such they enable us to determine the relationship of one or more "dependent" qualitative or categorical variables of interest on a set of "independent" classificatory variables as well as the relative effects of changes in the "independent" variables on the "dependent" variables. In particular such problems as the determination of possible factors and measures of their effect and interactions in the representation of the logits of one or more dichotomous variables lend themselves to the analysis we shall examine.

The methodology is based on the Principle of Minimum Discrimination Information Estimation, associated statistics and Analyses of Information. General computer programs are available to provide the data for the inferences.

2. Contingency Tables

We assume that the reader has some familiarity with cross-classifications in the form of contingency tables. We use a slightly modified conventional notation. For example, for a four-way contingency table, that is, one with four classifications or variables, each of several categories, not necessarily the same in number, we represent the observed number of occurrences in the (ijkl) cell of the contingency table by $x(ijkl)$, where the indices i, j, k, l , range over the respective categories of the variables. The corresponding probabilities are represented by $p(ijkl)$. Summation over one or more indices, resulting in various marginal distributions or marginals, is indicated by a dot or dots, thus

$$\sum_i x(ijkl) = x(\cdot jkl), \quad \sum_{j,l} x(ijkl) = x(i \cdot k \cdot), \text{ etc.,}$$

with a similar notation for the probabilities.

We shall denote estimates under various hypotheses or models by $x_{\alpha}^*(ijkl)$, where values of the subscript α will range over the hypotheses or models.

An example of a 2x2 two-way contingency table is shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

$x(ij)$			
	$j = 1$	$j = 2$	
$i = 1$	$x(11)$	$x(12)$	$x(1\cdot)$
$i = 2$	$x(21)$	$x(22)$	$x(2\cdot)$
	$x(\cdot 1)$	$x(\cdot 2)$	$x(\cdot\cdot) = n$

The estimated two-way table under the hypothesis or model of independence is shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

$x^*(ij)$			
	$j = 1$	$j = 2$	
$i = 1$	$x(1\cdot)x(\cdot 1)/n$	$x(1\cdot)x(\cdot 2)/n$	$x(1\cdot)$
$i = 2$	$x(2\cdot)x(\cdot 1)/n$	$x(2\cdot)x(\cdot 2)/n$	$x(2\cdot)$
	$x(\cdot 1)$	$x(\cdot 2)$	n

A common statistical measure of the association or interaction between the variables of a two-way 2x2 contingency table is the cross-product ratio, or its logarithm. The cross-product ratio is defined by

$$(2.1) \quad \frac{x(11)x(22)}{x(12)x(21)} ,$$

though we shall be more concerned with its logarithm

$$(2.2) \quad \ln \frac{x(11)x(22)}{x(12)x(21)} .$$

We shall use natural logarithms, that is, logarithms to the base e , rather than common logarithms to the base 10, because of the nature of the underlying mathematical statistical theory. Note that with the estimate for independence, or no association, the logarithm of the cross-product ratio is zero.

$$(2.3) \quad \ln \frac{x^*(11)x^*(22)}{x^*(12)x^*(21)} = \ln \frac{\frac{x(1\cdot)x(\cdot 1)}{n} \frac{x(2\cdot)x(\cdot 2)}{n}}{\frac{x(1\cdot)x(\cdot 2)}{n} \frac{x(2\cdot)x(\cdot 1)}{n}} = \ln 1 = 0 .$$

The logarithm of the cross-product ratio is positive if the odds satisfy the inequalities

$$\frac{x(11)}{x(21)} > \frac{x(12)}{x(22)} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{x(11)}{x(12)} > \frac{x(21)}{x(22)} ,$$

since then we get for the log-odds

$$\begin{aligned} \ln \frac{x(11)x(22)}{x(12)x(21)} &= \ln \frac{x(11)}{x(21)} - \ln \frac{x(12)}{x(22)} > 0 \\ &= \ln \frac{x(11)}{x(12)} - \ln \frac{x(21)}{x(22)} > 0 . \end{aligned}$$

The logarithm of the cross-product ratio is negative if the odds satisfy the inequalities

$$\frac{x(11)}{x(21)} < \frac{x(12)}{x(22)} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{x(11)}{x(12)} < \frac{x(21)}{x(22)} ,$$

since then we get for the log-odds

$$\ln \frac{x(11)x(22)}{x(12)x(21)} - \ln \frac{x(11)}{x(21)} - \ln \frac{x(22)}{x(12)} = 0$$

$$\ln \frac{x(11)}{x(12)} - \ln \frac{x(21)}{x(22)} = 0.$$

The logarithm of the cross-product ratio thus varies from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$. Later we shall consider procedures for assessing the significance of the deviation of the logarithm of the cross-product ratio from zero, the value corresponding to no association or no interaction.

For the three-way $2 \times 2 \times 2$ contingency table in addition to the classic types of independence, interaction or association, there arises an additional one important historically and practically. This is known as no three-factor

or no second-order interaction. No three-factor or no second-order interaction implies that the logarithm of the association measured by the cross-product ratio for any two of the variables is the same for all the values of the third variable, that is, there is no second-order interaction if

$$(2.4) \quad \begin{cases} \ln \frac{x(111)x(221)}{x(121)x(211)} = \ln \frac{x(112)x(222)}{x(122)x(212)}, & i, j \\ \ln \frac{x(111)x(212)}{x(112)x(211)} = \ln \frac{x(121)x(222)}{x(122)x(221)}, & i, k \\ \ln \frac{x(111)x(122)}{x(112)x(121)} = \ln \frac{x(211)x(222)}{x(212)x(221)}, & j, k. \end{cases}$$

One is concerned with the possible hypothesis or model of no second-order interaction when none of the other types of independence are found. However, in this case, the corresponding estimate cannot be expressed explicitly in terms of observed marginals although the estimate is constrained to have the same two-way marginals as the observed table. Straightforward iterative procedures exist to determine the estimate under the hypothesis or model of no second-order interaction. For the general three-way $r \times s \times t$ contingency table there are of course many more relations among the log cross-product ratios like (2.4) which must be satisfied, but the iterative procedures to determine the estimate extend to the general case with no difficulty.

For four-way and higher order contingency tables the problem of presentation of the data increases, as do the variety and number of questions about relationships of possible interest and varieties of interaction. The basic ideas, concepts, notation and terminology we have mentioned for the two- and three-way contingency tables extend to the more general cases as we consider the methodology. For some additional prefatory remarks see Ku et al (1971).

3. Discrimination Information

To make the discussion more specific and with no essential restriction on the generality, we shall present it in terms of the analysis of four-way contingency tables. Let us consider the collection of four-way contingency tables $R \times S \times T \times U$ of dimension $r \times s \times t \times u$. For convenience let us denote the aggregate of all cell identifications by Ω with individual cells identified by ω so that the generic variable is $\omega = (i, j, k, l)$, $i = 1, \dots, r$, $j = 1, \dots, s$, $k = 1, \dots, t$, $l = 1, \dots, u$. Suppose there are two probability distributions or contingency tables (we shall use these terms interchangeably) defined over the space Ω , say $p(\omega)$, $\pi(\omega)$, $\sum_{\Omega} p(\omega) = 1$, $\sum_{\Omega} \pi(\omega) = 1$. The discrimination information is defined by

$$(3.1) \quad I(p:\pi) = \sum_{\Omega} p(\omega) \ln \frac{p(\omega)}{\pi(\omega)}.$$

The basis for this definition, its properties, and relation to other definitions of information measures will not be considered in detail in this exposition. For the particular types of application to which we shall restrict this exposition the π -distribution, $\pi(\omega)$, in the definition (3.1) according to the problem of interest may either be specified, or it may be an estimated distribution. The p -distribution, $p(\omega)$, in the definition (3.1) ranges over or is a member of a family of distributions of interest.

Of the various properties of $I(p:\pi)$ we mention in particular the fact that $I(p:\pi) > 0$ and $= 0$ if and only if $p(\omega) \neq \pi(\omega)$.

4. Minimum Discrimination Information Estimation

Many problems in the analysis of contingency tables may be characterized as estimating a distribution or contingency table subject to certain restraints and then comparing the estimated table with an observed table to determine whether the observed table satisfies a null hypothesis or model implied by the restraints. In accordance with the principle of minimum discrimination information estimation we determine that member of the collection or family of p-distributions satisfying the restraints which minimizes the discrimination information $I(p;\pi)$ over all members of the family of pertinent p-distributions. We denote the minimum discrimination information estimate by $p^*(\omega)$ so that

$$(4.1) \quad I(p^*;\pi) = \sum p^*(\omega) \ln \frac{p^*(\omega)}{\pi(\omega)} = \min I(p;\pi) .$$

Unless otherwise stated, the summation is over Ω which will be omitted.

In a wide class of problems which can be characterized as "smoothing" or fitting an observed contingency table the restraints specify that the estimated distribution or contingency table have some set of marginals which are the same as those of an observed contingency table. In such cases $\pi(\omega)$ is taken to be either the uniform distribution $\pi(ijk\ell) = 1/rstu$ or a distribution already estimated subject to restraints contained in and implied by the restraints under examination. The latter case includes the classical hypotheses of independence, conditional independence, homogeneity, conditional homogeneity and interaction, all of which can be considered as instances of generalized independence and will be considered in some detail in this paper. By generalized independence is meant the fact that the estimates may be expressed as a product of factors which are functions of appropriate marginals. See Ku et al (1971).

5. Minimum Discrimination Information Statistic

To test whether an observed contingency table is consistent with the null hypothesis or model as represented by the minimum discrimination information estimate we compute a measure of the deviation between the observed distribution and the appropriate estimate by the minimum discrimination information statistic. For notational convenience and later

computational convenience let us denote the cell in the contingency table in terms of occurrence by $x_{ij}^*(\omega)$ and $x_{ij}^*(\omega)$. For the "fitting" or fitting class of problems, that is, with the restraints implied by a set of observed marginals (those of a generalized independence hypothesis), the minimum discrimination information (m.d.i.) statistic is

$$(5.1) \quad 2I(x:x^*) = 2 \sum x_{ij}^*(\omega) \ln \frac{x_{ij}^*(\omega)}{x_{ij}^*(\omega)}$$

which is asymptotically distributed as a χ^2 with appropriate degrees of freedom under the null hypothesis.

The statistic in (5.1) is also minus twice the logarithm of the classic likelihood ratio statistic but this is not necessarily true for other kinds of applications of the general theory.

6. Minimum Discrimination Information Theorem

We now present a theorem which is the basis for the principle of minimum discrimination information estimation and its applications. We shall present it in a form related to the context of this discussion on the analysis of contingency tables.

Let us consider the space Ω mentioned in Section 3 and the discrimination information introduced in (3.1). Suppose now, for example, that there are three linearly independent statistics of interest defined over the space Ω ,

$$(6.1) \quad T_1(\omega), T_2(\omega), T_3(\omega).$$

Let us determine the value of $p(\omega)$ which minimizes the discrimination information

$$(6.2) \quad I(p:r) = \sum p(\omega) \ln \frac{p(\omega)}{r(\omega)}$$

over the family of p -distributions which satisfies the restraints

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum T_1(\omega) p(\omega) &= \theta_1^* \\
 \sum T_2(\omega) p(\omega) &= \theta_2^* \\
 \sum T_3(\omega) p(\omega) &= \theta_3^*
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{6.3}$$

where θ_1^* , θ_2^* , θ_3^* are specified values, and $\pi(\omega)$ is a fixed distribution.

If $\pi(\omega)$ satisfies the restraints (6.3), then of course the minimum value of $I(p:\pi)$ is zero and the minimizing distribution is $p^*(\omega) = \pi(\omega)$. More generally, the minimum discrimination information theorem states that the minimizing distribution is given by

$$p^*(\omega) = \frac{\exp(\tau_1 T_1(\omega) + \tau_2 T_2(\omega) + \tau_3 T_3(\omega)) \pi(\omega)}{M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3)}
 \tag{6.4}$$

where

$$M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3) = \sum \exp(\tau_1 T_1(\omega) + \tau_2 T_2(\omega) + \tau_3 T_3(\omega)) \pi(\omega)
 \tag{6.5}$$

is a normalizing factor so that $\sum p^*(\omega) = 1$, and the τ 's are parameters which technically are in essence undetermined Lagrange multipliers whose values are defined in terms of θ_1^* , θ_2^* , θ_3^* by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \theta_1^* &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau_1} \ln M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3) \\
 &= (\sum \exp(\tau_1 T_1(\omega) + \tau_2 T_2(\omega) + \tau_3 T_3(\omega)) T_1(\omega) \pi(\omega)) / M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3) \\
 &= \sum T_1(\omega) p^*(\omega) \\
 \theta_2^* &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau_2} \ln M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3) \\
 &= (\sum \exp(\tau_1 T_1(\omega) + \tau_2 T_2(\omega) + \tau_3 T_3(\omega)) T_2(\omega) \pi(\omega)) / M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3) \\
 \theta_3^* &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau_3} \ln M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3) \\
 &= (\sum \exp(\tau_1 T_1(\omega) + \tau_2 T_2(\omega) + \tau_3 T_3(\omega)) T_3(\omega) \pi(\omega)) / M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3) \\
 &= \sum T_3(\omega) p^*(\omega) .
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{6.6}$$

We can now state a number of consequences of the preceding.

We note first that $p^*(\omega)$ is a member of an exponential family of distributions generated by $\pi(\omega)$ and as such has the desirable statistical properties of members of an exponential family which include all the common and classic distributions. We may also write (6.4) as

$$(6.7) \quad \ln \frac{p^*(\omega)}{\pi(\omega)} = -\ln M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3) + \tau_1 T_1(\omega) + \tau_2 T_2(\omega) + \tau_3 T_3(\omega) \\ = L + \tau_1 T_1(\omega) + \tau_2 T_2(\omega) + \tau_3 T_3(\omega)$$

with $L = -\ln M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3)$. The regression or log-linear expression in (6.7) for $\ln(p^*(\omega)/\pi(\omega))$ with $T_1(\omega)$, $T_2(\omega)$, $T_3(\omega)$ as the explanatory variables and τ_1 , τ_2 , τ_3 as the regression coefficients plays an important role in the analysis we shall consider.

We note next that the minimum value of the discrimination information (6.2) is

$$(6.8) \quad I(p^*:\pi) = \tau_1 \theta_1^* + \tau_2 \theta_2^* + \tau_3 \theta_3^* - \ln M(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3)$$

where the θ^* 's are defined in (6.3) and the τ 's are determined to satisfy (6.6). Using the value in (6.7) it may be shown that if $p(\omega)$ is any member of the family of distributions satisfying (6.3), then

$$(6.9) \quad I(p:\pi) = I(p^*:\pi) + I(p:p^*) .$$

The pythagorean type property (6.9) plays an important role in the analysis of information tables.

7. Computational Procedures

An "experiment" has been designed and observations made resulting in a multi-dimensional contingency table with the desired classifications and categories. All the information the analyst hopes to obtain from the "experiment" is contained in the contingency table. In the process of analysis, the aim is to fit the observed table by a minimal or parsimonious number of parameters depending on some or all of the marginals, that is,

to find out how much of this total information is contained in a summary consisting of sets of marginals. Indeed, the relationship between the concept of independence or association and interaction in contingency tables and the role the marginals play is evidenced in the historical developments in the extensive literature on the analysis of contingency tables. Thus, the θ^* 's in the preceding discussion will be the marginals of interest. See Ku et al (1971).

7.1. The $T(\omega)$ Functions. The $T(\omega)$ functions for the $R \times S \times T \times U$ table turn out to be a basic set of simple functions and their various products. Thus, for example, the $T(\omega)$ function associated with the one-way marginal $p(2...)$ is

$$(7.1) \quad T_2^R(ijkl) = 1 \text{ for } i = 2, \text{ any } j, k, l \\ = 0 \text{ otherwise}$$

since

$$(7.2) \quad \sum p(ijkl) T_2^R(ijkl) = p(2...) .$$

Similarly the $T(\omega)$ function associated with the one-way marginal $p(...3)$, for example, is

$$(7.3) \quad T_3^T(ijkl) = 1 \text{ for } k = 3, \text{ any } i, j, l \\ = 0 \text{ otherwise}$$

since

$$(7.4) \quad \sum p(ijkl) T_3^T(ijkl) = p(...3) .$$

Thus for the $rsxtu$ table there are

$$(7.5) \quad \begin{aligned} &(r-1) \text{ linearly independent functions } T_\alpha^R(ijkl), \alpha = 1, \dots, r-1 \\ &(s-1) \text{ linearly independent functions } T_\beta^S(ijkl), \beta = 1, \dots, s-1 \\ &(t-1) \text{ linearly independent functions } T_\gamma^T(ijkl), \gamma = 1, \dots, t-1 \\ &(u-1) \text{ linearly independent functions } T_\delta^U(ijkl), \delta = 1, \dots, u-1, \end{aligned}$$

since, for example,

$$\sum_{\alpha=1}^r \sum T_\alpha^R(ijkl) = rstu .$$

We have arbitrarily excluded the functions corresponding to $\alpha = r$, $\beta = s$, $\gamma = t$, $\delta = u$ as a matter of convenience. We could have selected $\alpha = 1$, $\beta = 1$, $\gamma = 1$, $\delta = 1$ or any other set of values.

The $T(\omega)$ function associated with the two-way marginal $p(12..)$ say, is $T_1^R(ijk\ell) T_2^S(ijk\ell)$ since from the definition of $T_1^R(ijk\ell)$ and $T_2^S(ijk\ell)$ it may be seen that

$$(7.6) \quad T_1^R(ijk\ell) T_2^S(ijk\ell) = 1 \quad \text{for } i = 1, j = 2, \text{ any } k, \ell \\ = 0 \quad \text{otherwise}$$

and

$$(7.7) \quad \sum p(ijk\ell) T_1^R(ijk\ell) T_2^S(ijk\ell) = p(12..) .$$

For convenience we shall write $T_\alpha^R(ijk\ell) T_\beta^S(ijk\ell) = T_{\alpha\beta}^{RS}(ijk\ell)$, etc. Thus the $T(\omega)$ function associated with any two-way marginal is a product of two appropriate functions of the set (7.5).

Similarly the $T(\omega)$ function associated with any three-way marginal will be a product of three of the appropriate functions of the set (7.5), for example,

$$(7.8) \quad \sum p(ijk\ell) T_2^R(ijk\ell) T_1^T(ijk\ell) T_3^U(ijk\ell) = p(2.13) .$$

For convenience we shall write $T_\alpha^R(ijk\ell) T_\beta^S(ijk\ell) T_\gamma^T(ijk\ell) = T_{\alpha\beta\gamma}^{RST}(ijk\ell)$, etc.

Similarly the $T(\omega)$ function associated with any four-way marginal will be a product of four of the appropriate functions of the set (7.5), for example,

$$(7.9) \quad \sum p(ijk\ell) T_2^R(ijk\ell) T_1^S(ijk\ell) T_1^T(ijk\ell) T_2^U(ijk\ell) = p(2112) .$$

For convenience we shall write $T_\alpha^R(ijk\ell) T_\beta^S(ijk\ell) T_\gamma^T(ijk\ell) T_\delta^U(ijk\ell) = T_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}^{RSTU}(ijk\ell)$.

We note that there are a total of

$$(7.10) \quad \begin{cases} N_1 = (r-1) + (s-1) + (t-1) + (u-1) \\ N_2 = (r-1)(s-1) + (r-1)(t-1) + (r-1)(u-1) + (s-1)(t-1) \\ \quad + (s-1)(u-1) + (t-1)(u-1) \\ N_3 = (r-1)(s-1)(t-1) + (r-1)(s-1)(u-1) + (r-1)(t-1)(u-1) \\ \quad + (s-1)(t-1)(u-1) \\ N_4 = (r-1)(s-1)(t-1)(u-1) , \end{cases}$$

respectively, of the simple linearly independent functions and their products two, three, four at a time. It may be verified that

$$(7.11) \quad rstu - 1 = N = N_1 + N_2 + N_3 + N_4 .$$

These values of the number of $T(\omega)$ functions (or associated tau parameters) appear as appropriate degrees of freedom in the analysis of information tables.

7.2. The Estimated $p^*(\omega)$ Values. In the usual least squares regression analysis procedure, one first computes the regression coefficients and then gets the values of the estimates. In the methodology we use we reverse the procedure. Instead of trying to obtain the values of the τ 's from (6.6) (which is possible) we shall first obtain the values of the estimates $p^*(\omega)$ by a straightforward convergent iterative procedure and then derive the values of the τ 's from (6.7). We shall not discuss the details of the iteration here, as they are in the computer program and have been described elsewhere. The iteration may be described as successively cycling through adjustments of the marginals of interest starting with the $\pi(\omega)$ distribution until a desired accuracy of agreement between the set of observed marginals of interest and the computed marginals has been attained. See Ku et al (1971).

7.3. The τ Values or Interaction Parameters. From the definitions of the $T(\omega)$ functions in Section 7.1 it is clear that they take on only the values 0 or 1 for each value of ω . From the nature of the $T(\omega)$

functions the set of regression or log-linear equations (6.7) will have some with a single τ value which can be determined. Then there will be a set with one additional unknown value and some of the τ 's already determined. These new unknown τ values can be then determined. This process of successive evaluation is carried on until all the values of τ are determined. They are also available as output of a general computer program.

8. Graphic Representation

A useful graphic representation of the log-linear regression (6.7) is given in Figure 8.1 for a $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$ contingency table. This is the analogue of the design matrix in normal regression theory. The blank spaces in Figure 8.1 represent zero values. The (ijk ℓ)-columns are the cell identifications in the same lexographic order as the cell entries for the estimates in the computer output. Column 1 corresponds to L which is essentially a normalizing factor. Each of the columns 2 to 16 represents the corresponding values of the $T(u)$ functions, columns 2 to 5 those for the one-way marginals, columns 6 to 11 those for the two-way marginals, columns 12 to 15 those for the three-way marginals, and column 16 that for the four-way marginal. For convenience the columns are also arranged in lexographic order. The tau parameter associated with the $T(u)$ function is given at the head of the column. The full representation with all the columns of Figure 8.1 generates the observed values. Thus the rows represent

$$(8.1) \quad \ln \frac{p(ijk\ell)}{\pi(ijk\ell)} = \ln \frac{x(ijk\ell)}{n\pi(ijk\ell)} = L + \tau_{11}^i T_{11}^i(ijk\ell) + \dots + \tau_{11}^{ij} T_{11}^{ij}(ijk\ell) \\ + \dots + \tau_{111}^{ijk} T_{111}^{ijk}(ijk\ell) + \dots + \tau_{1111}^{ijk\ell} T_{1111}^{ijk\ell}(ijk\ell)$$

where $\pi(ijk\ell)$ in the $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$ case is $1/2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$ and the numerical values of L and the taus depend on the observed values $x(ijk\ell)$. The design matrix corresponding to an estimate uses only those columns associated with the marginals explicit and implied in the fitting process. This is a reflection of the fact that higher order marginals imply certain

ω	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
$i \ j \ k \ \ell$	L	τ_1^i	τ_1^j	τ_1^k	τ_1^ℓ	τ_{11}^{ij}	τ_{11}^{ik}	$\tau_{11}^{i\ell}$	τ_{11}^{jk}	$\tau_{11}^{j\ell}$	$\tau_{11}^{k\ell}$	τ_{111}^{ijk}	$\tau_{111}^{ij\ell}$	$\tau_{111}^{ik\ell}$	$\tau_{111}^{j\ell\ell}$	τ_{1111}^{ijkl}
1 1 1 1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1 1 1 2	1	1	1	1		1	1		1			1				
1 1 2 1	1	1	1		1	1		1		1			1			
1 1 2 2	1	1	1			1										
1 2 1 1	1	1		1	1		1	1			1			1		
1 2 1 2	1	1		1			1									
1 2 2 1	1	1			1			1								
1 2 2 2	1	1														
2 1 1 1	1		1	1	1				1	1	1				1	
2 1 1 2	1		1	1					1							
2 1 2 1	1		1		1					1						
2 1 2 2	1		1													
2 2 1 1	1			1	1						1					
2 2 1 2	1			1												
2 2 2 1	1				1											
2 2 2 2	1															

Figure 8.1. Graphic representation.

lower order marginals, for example, the two-way marginal $x(ij..)$ implies, by summation over i and j , the one-way marginals $x(.j..)$, $x(i...)$, and the total $n = x(....)$. Thus the estimate based on fitting the one-way marginals will use only columns 1-5. The values of L and the taus for this estimate will be different from those for $x(ijkl)$ and depend on the estimate $x_1^*(ijkl)$. Thus if we denote the estimate based on fitting the one-way marginals as $x_1^*(ijkl)$, the representation in Figure 8.1 implies

$$(8.2) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \ln \frac{x_1^*(1111)}{n\pi} = L + \tau_1^i + \tau_1^j + \tau_1^k + \tau_1^\ell \\ \ln \frac{x_1^*(1112)}{n\pi} = L + \tau_1^i + \tau_1^j + \tau_1^k \\ \vdots \\ \ln \frac{x_1^*(2222)}{n\pi} = L \end{array} \right.$$

the observed value $x_{ijk\ell}$ of the two-way marginal x_{ijk} and $x_{ij\ell}$ (11) since the two-way marginals imply the one-way marginals. The value x_{ijk} and the value for this estimate will be different from those for the observed value of other variables and depend on the values of the estimate which is denoted by $x_{ijk\ell}^*$ for the estimate fitting. The two-way estimate is the representation in figure 8.1. namely

$$(8.1) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_{ijk\ell}^*(1111) \\ \quad \frac{x_{ijk\ell}^*(1111)}{n} = 1 + \frac{i}{1} + \frac{j}{1} + \frac{k}{1} + \frac{\ell}{1} + \frac{ij}{11} + \frac{ik}{11} + \frac{j\ell}{11} + \frac{jk}{11} + \frac{ij\ell}{111} + \frac{k\ell}{111} \\ x_{ijk\ell}^*(1112) \\ \quad \frac{x_{ijk\ell}^*(1112)}{n} = 1 + \frac{i}{1} + \frac{j}{1} + \frac{k}{1} + \frac{\ell}{1} + \frac{ij}{11} + \frac{ik}{11} + \frac{j\ell}{11} \\ \vdots \\ x_{ijk\ell}^*(2222) \\ \quad \frac{x_{ijk\ell}^*(2222)}{n} = 1 \end{array} \right.$$

The representation for the uniform distribution corresponds to column 1 only.

Note that in accordance with (7.10) and (7.11)

$$\begin{aligned} N_1 &= 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 &= 4 \text{ (columns 2 to 5)} \\ N_2 &= 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 &= 6 \text{ (columns 6 to 11)} \\ N_3 &= 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 &= 4 \text{ (columns 12 to 15)} \\ N_4 &= 1 &= 1 \text{ (column 16)} \\ N &= 16 - 1 = 15 &= 4 + 6 + 4 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

9. Analysis of Information

Although the preceding discussion has at times been in terms of probabilities, estimated probabilities or relative frequencies, in practice it has been found more convenient not to divide everything by n , the total number of occurrences, and deal with observed or estimated occurrences, that is, with $nr(ijkl) = n/rstu$, $x(ijkl)$, $x(i...)$, $x(.j...)$, $x^*(ijkl) = np^*(ijkl)$, etc. The analysis of information is based on the fundamental relation (6.9) for the minimum discrimination information statistic. Specifically if $np_a^*(\omega) = x_a^*(\omega)$ is the minimum discrimination information estimate corresponding to a set Π_a of given marginals and $x_b^*(\omega)$ is the

minimum discrimination information estimate corresponding to a set H_b of given marginals, where H_b is explicitly or implicitly contained in H_a , then the basic relations are

$$\begin{aligned}
 2I(x:n\pi) &= 2I(x_a^*:n\pi) + 2I(x:n|x_a^*) \\
 2I(x:n\pi) &= 2I(x_b^*:n\pi) + 2I(x:n|x_b^*) \\
 2I(x_b^*:n\pi) &= 2I(x_a^*:n\pi) + 2I(x_b^*:x_a^*) \\
 2I(x:n|x_a^*) &= 2I(x_b^*:x_a^*) + 2I(x:n|x_b^*)
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{9.1}$$

with a corresponding additive relation for the associated degrees of freedom.

In terms of the representation in (6.4) or (6.7) or Figure 8.1 as an exponential family, for our discussion, the two extreme cases are the uniform distribution for which all τ 's are zero, and the observed contingency table or distribution for which all $N = rstu - 1$ τ 's are needed.

Measures of the form $2I(x:x_a^*)$, that is, the comparison of an observed contingency table with an estimated contingency table, are called measures of interaction or goodness-of-fit. Measures of the form $2I(x_b^*:x_a^*)$, comparing two estimated contingency tables, are called measures of effect, that is the effect of the marginals in the set H_b but not in the set H_a or the taus in x_b^* but not in x_a^* . We note that $2I(x:n|x_a^*)$ tests a null hypothesis that the values of the τ parameters in the representation of the observed contingency table $x(\omega)$ but not in the representation of the estimated table $x_a^*(\omega)$ are zero and the number of these taus is the number of degrees of freedom. Similarly $2I(x_b^*:x_a^*)$ tests a null hypothesis that the values of the set of τ parameters in the representation of the estimated table $x_b^*(\omega)$ but not in the representation of the estimated table $x_a^*(\omega)$ are zero and the number of these taus is the number of degrees of freedom.

We summarize the additive relationships of the m.d.i. statistics and the associated degrees of freedom in the Analysis of Information Table 9.1.

TABLE 9.1

ANALYSIS OF INFORMATION TABLE

Component due to	Information	D.F.
H_a : Interaction	$2I(x:x_a^*)$	N_a
H_b : Effect	$2I(x_b^*:x_a^*)$	$N_a - N_b$
Interaction	$2I(x:x_b^*)$	N_b

Since measures of the form $2I(x:x_a^*)$ may also be interpreted as measures of the "variation unexplained" by the estimate x_a^* , the additive relationship leads to the interpretation of the ratio

$$(9.2) \quad \frac{2I(x:x_a^*) - 2I(x:x_b^*)}{2I(x:x_a^*)} = \frac{2I(x_b^*:x_a^*)}{2I(x:x_a^*)}$$

as the percentage of the unexplained variation due to x_a^* accounted for by the additional constraints defining x_b^* . The ratio (9.2) is thus similar to the squared correlation coefficients associated with normal distributions.

We remark that the marginals explicit and implicit of the estimated table $x_a^*(\omega)$ which form the set of restraints H_a used to generate $x_a^*(\omega)$ are the same as the corresponding marginals of the observed $x(\omega)$ table and all lower order implied marginals. It may be shown that $2I(x:x_a^*)$ is approximately a quadratic in the differences between the remaining marginals of the $x(\omega)$ table and the corresponding ones as calculated from the $x_a^*(\omega)$ table.

Similarly $2I(x_b^*:x_a^*)$ is also approximately a quadratic in the differences between those additional marginal restraints in H_b but not in H_a and the corresponding marginal values as computed from the $x_a^*(\omega)$ table.

As may be seen, because of the nature of the $T(\omega)$ functions described in Section 7.1 or indicated in Figure 8.1, the τ 's are determined from the log-linear regression Equations (6.7) (see (8.2) and (10.3))

as sums and differences of values of $2n \chi^2(i|j)$. A variety of statistics have been presented in the literature for the analysis of contingency tables, which are quadratics in differences of marginal values or quadratics in the τ 's or the linear combinations of logarithms of the observed or estimated values. The principle of minimum discrimination information estimation and its procedures thus provides a unifying relationship since such statistics may be seen as quadratic approximations of the minimum discrimination information statistic. We remark that the corresponding approximate χ^2 's are not generally additive.

We mention the approximations in terms of quadratic forms in the marginals or the τ 's as a possible bridge connecting the familiar procedures of classical regression analysis and the procedures proposed here to assist in understanding and interpreting the analysis of information tables. The covariance matrix of the $T(w)$ functions or the τ 's can be obtained for either the observed table or any of the estimated tables, as well as the inverse matrices as part of the output of the general computer program. See (10.4) to (10.9).

10. The 2x2 Table

It may be useful to reexamine the 2x2 table from the point of view of the preceding discussion. The algebraic details are simple in this case and exhibit the unification of the information theoretic development.

Suppose we have the observed 2x2 table in Figure 10.1

x(11)	x(12)	x(1.)
x(21)	x(22)	x(2.)
x(.1)	x(.2)	n

Figure 10.1

If we obtain the m.d.i. estimate fitting the one-way marginals, the generalized independence hypothesis is the classical independence hypothesis and the minimum discrimination information estimate is $x^*(ij) = x(i.)x(.j)/n$. The representation of the log-linear regression (6.7) as in Figure 8.1 for the full model is given in Figure 10.2. The entries in the columns τ_1, τ_2, τ_3

i	j	L	τ_1	τ_2	τ_3
1	1	1	1	1	1
1	2	1	1		
2	1	1		1	
2	2	1			

Figure 10.2

are, respectively, the values of the functions $T_1(ij), T_2(ij), T_3(ij)$ associated with the marginals $\theta_1 = x(1.)$, $\theta_2 = x(.1)$, $\theta_3 = x(11)$, and the column headed L corresponds to the normalizing factor (the negative of the logarithm of the moment-generating function as in (6.7)).

We recall the interpretation of Figure 10.2 as the log-linear relations

$$(10.1) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \ln \frac{x(11)}{n\pi} = L + \tau_1 + \tau_2 + \tau_3 \\ \ln \frac{x(12)}{n\pi} = L + \tau_1 \\ \ln \frac{x(21)}{n\pi} = L + \tau_2 \\ \ln \frac{x(22)}{n\pi} = L \end{array} \right.$$

From (10.1) we find

$$(10.2) \quad \begin{aligned} L &= \ln (x(22)/n/4) , \\ \tau_1 &= \ln (x(12)/x(22)) , \\ \tau_2 &= \ln (x(21)/x(22)) , \\ \tau_3 &= \ln (x(11)x(22)/x(12)x(21)) \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
 (10.3) \quad \tau_1 &= \ln x(12) - \ln x(22) , \\
 \tau_2 &= \ln x(21) - \ln x(22) , \\
 \tau_3 &= \ln x(11) + \ln x(22) - \ln x(12) - \ln x(21) .
 \end{aligned}$$

If we call $\underline{T}$ the matrix with columns the columns of the design matrix of Figure 10.2 that is,

$$(10.4) \quad \underline{T} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} ,$$

and define a diagonal matrix $\underline{D}$ with main diagonal the elements $x(ij)$, that is,

$$(10.5) \quad \underline{D} = \begin{pmatrix} x(11) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & x(12) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & x(21) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & x(22) \end{pmatrix} ,$$

then the estimate of the covariance matrix of $\theta_1 = x(1.)$, $\theta_2 = x(.1)$, $\theta_3 = x(11)$ for the observed contingency table is $\underline{\Sigma} = \underline{A}_{22.1}$ where

$$(10.6) \quad \underline{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \underline{A}_{11} & \underline{A}_{12} \\ \underline{A}_{21} & \underline{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \underline{T}' \underline{D} \underline{T}$$

$$(10.7) \quad \underline{A}_{22.1} = \underline{A}_{22} - \underline{A}_{21} \underline{A}_{11}^{-1} \underline{A}_{12}$$

and $\underline{A}_{11}$ is 1×1 , $\underline{A}_{22}$ is 3×3 , $\underline{A}_{21}' = \underline{A}_{12}$ is 1×3 . It is found that

$$(10.8) \quad \underline{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{x(1.)x(2.)}{n} & x(11) - \frac{x(1.)x(.1)}{n} & \frac{x(11)x(2.)}{n} \\ x(11) - \frac{x(1.)x(.1)}{n} & \frac{x(.1)x(.2)}{n} & \frac{x(11)x(.2)}{n} \\ \frac{x(11)x(2.)}{n} & \frac{x(11)x(.2)}{n} & x(11) - \frac{x^2(11)}{n} \end{pmatrix} ,$$

and the inverse matrix is

$$(10.9) \quad \underline{\underline{L}}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{x(12)} + \frac{1}{x(22)} & \frac{1}{x(22)} & -\frac{1}{x(12)} - \frac{1}{x(22)} \\ \frac{1}{x(22)} & \frac{1}{x(21)} + \frac{1}{x(22)} & -\frac{1}{x(21)} - \frac{1}{x(22)} \\ -\frac{1}{x(12)} - \frac{1}{x(22)} & -\frac{1}{x(21)} - \frac{1}{x(22)} & \frac{1}{x(11)} + \frac{1}{x(12)} + \frac{1}{x(21)} + \frac{1}{x(22)} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We remark that the matrix in (10.9) is the covariance matrix of the τ 's in (10.3). Similar results hold in general and for estimated tables.

Note that the value of the logarithm of the cross-product ratio, a measure of association or interaction, appears in the course of the analysis as the value of τ_3 for the observed values $x(ij)$, and that $\tau_3 = 0$ for $x^*(ij)$, the estimate under the hypothesis of independence, for which the representation as in Figure 10.2 does not involve the last column since it is obtained by fitting the one-way marginals.

The log-linear relations for the estimate $x^*(ij)$ are

$$(10.10) \quad \begin{cases} \ln \frac{x^*(11)}{n\pi} = L + \tau_1 + \tau_2 \\ \ln \frac{x^*(12)}{n\pi} = L + \tau_1 \\ \ln \frac{x^*(21)}{n\pi} = L + \tau_2 \\ \ln \frac{x^*(22)}{n\pi} = L \end{cases},$$

where the numerical values of L , τ_1 , τ_2 in (10.10) depend on x^* and differ from the values in (10.1).

The minimum discrimination information statistic to test the null hypothesis or model of independence is $2I(x:x^*)$ with one degree of freedom. In this case the quadratic approximation is

$$(10.11) \quad 2I(x:x^*) \approx \left(x(11) - \frac{x(1.)x(.1)}{n} \right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{x^*(11)} + \frac{1}{x^*(12)} + \frac{1}{x^*(21)} + \frac{1}{x^*(22)} \right).$$

Remembering that $x^*(ij) = x(i.)x(.j)/n$, the right-hand side of (10.11) may also be shown to be

$$(10.12) \quad \chi^2 = \sum (x(ij) - x(i.)x(.j)/n)^2 / \frac{x(i.)x(.j)}{n},$$

the classical χ^2 -test for independence with one degree of freedom. Another test which has been proposed for the null hypothesis of no association or no interaction in the 2×2 table is

$$(10.13) \quad (\ln x(11) + \ln x(22) - \ln x(12) - \ln x(21))^2 \left(\frac{1}{x(11)} + \frac{1}{x(12)} + \frac{1}{x(21)} + \frac{1}{x(22)} \right)^{-1},$$

which may be shown to be a quadratic approximation for $2I(x:x^*)$ in terms of τ_3 with the covariance matrix estimated using the observed values and not the estimated values. We remark that if the observed values are used to estimate the covariance matrix then instead of the classical χ^2 -test in (10.12) there is derived the modified Neyman chi-square

$$(10.14) \quad \chi_1^2 = \sum (x(ij) - x(i.)x(.j)/n)^2 / x(ij).$$

11. An Analysis

In order to coordinate and relate the various definitions, concepts, parameters, computational features, etc. discussed in the preceding sections we shall consider in detail the analysis of a specific contingency table.

Table 11.1 is a four-way contingency table of 14,053 men in a training program, cross-classified on the variables home region, level of education, race and program completion. We denote the occurrences in the four-way cross-classification or contingency Table 11.1 by $x(ijkl)$ with the notation

Variable	Index	1	2	3	4
Home Region	i	East	North	West	South
Level of Education	j	Below H.S.	H.S.	Above H.S.	
Race	k	White	Non-white		
Program	l	Failed	Passed		

For this data we are interested in the possible relationship of success in training, a dependent variable on the independent or explanatory variables home region, level of education, and race. To obtain a smoothed estimate of the observed or observed classification utilizing significant effects and interactions we shall examine a sequence of minimum discrimination information estimates based on nested sets of fitted marginals. That is, each successive estimate uses a set of marginals which explicitly or implicitly contains the marginals of the preceding estimate and also additional ones to determine the effect of the additional marginal or their associated interaction tau parameters. The analysis of interaction table permits us to judge the significance or non-significance of these effects or interaction tau parameters.

11.1 Fitting Nested Sets of Marginals. Since we are interested in the possible relationship of success in training on home region, level of education and race, we first fit the marginals $x(ijk.)$, $x(...l)$ since the corresponding estimate $x^*(ijk) = x(ijk)x(...l)/n$ is that under the null hypothesis or model of independence of success and the joint variable (home region, level of education, race) or no interaction between success and the joint variable. In other words we first want to determine whether the 24 columns of Table 11.1 are homogeneous or not with respect to the underlying probabilities of passing or failing. The associated m.d.i. statistic is

$$2l(x:x^*) = 2 \sum_{ijk} x(ijk) \ln \{x(ijk)/x^*(ijk)\} = 160.561$$

with 23 degrees of freedom. We reject the hypothesis of independence or no interaction. We therefore shall look for explanatory effects.

In Figure 11.1 there is given the complete schematic for the log-linear representations. The representation for the estimate of joint independence $x^*(ijk) = x(ijk)x(...l)/n$ uses columns 1-17, 21-22, 26-31 corresponding to all the marginals explicit and implicit in the fitted marginal constraints. We can also interpret $2l(x:x^*)$ as testing a null hypothesis or model that the 23 tau parameters in the representation of x^* but not in x^* are zero, that is, the parameters corresponding to columns 18-20, 23-25, 32-33.

The value of $2I(x_{ijk}^*)$ is so large that we reject the model of joint independence. We therefore proceed to fit a sequence of nested marginals including $x(ijk.)$ and various combinations of two- and three-way marginals containing success with other variables. We summarize some results in the truncated Analysis of Information Table 11.2. We have not included all the intermediate fitting sequences for conciseness. We remark that although the measure of the effect of additional marginals or their associated parameters may vary according to the sequence in which they have been added, significant effects tend to remain significant and non-significant effects tend to stay non-significant so that the first overall survey should determine the estimates and interaction parameters which warrant further investigation. For example, the effect of adding $x(..kl)$ to $x(ijk.)$, $x(i..l)$, $x(.j.l)$ is given in Analysis of Information Table 11.3 as $2I(x_f^*:x_a^*) = 1.410$ with one degree of freedom, but the effect of adding $x(..kl)$ to $x(ijk.)$, $x(ij.l)$ is given in Analysis of Information Table 11.2 as $2I(x_e^*:x_m^*) = 1.239$ with one degree of freedom. In neither case is the effect or the corresponding tau parameter τ_{11}^{kl} significant.

The columns of Figure 11.1 which occur in the log-linear representations of the estimates retained in Analysis of Information Table 11.2 are

<u>Marginals Fitted</u>	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>Columns of Figure 11.1</u>
$x(ijk.), x(...l)$	x^*	1-17, 21-22, 26-31
$x(ijk.), x(i..l), x(.j.l)$	x_a^*	1-24, 26-31
$x(ijk.), x(ij..)$	x_m^*	1-24, 26-37
$x(ijk.), x(ij.l), x(..kl)$	x_e^*	1-37

From the analytic form of the log-linear representation or by taking differences of appropriate rows of Figure 11.1 within the columns used for the estimate, the log-odds of fail to pass for each of the estimates are given by the respective parametric representations in (11.1) where the superscripts relate to the variables and the subscripts range over the possible indices. The values of the parameters depend of course on the corresponding estimate.

TABLE 11.2

ANALYSIS OF INFORMATION TABLE

Component Due to	Information	D.F.
$x(ijk.), x(...l)$	$2I(x:x^*) = 160.551$	23
a) $x(ijk.), x(i..l), x(.j.l)$	$2I(x_a^*:x^*) = 138.732$	5
	$2I(x:x_a^*) = 21.819$	18
m) $x(ijk.), x(ij.l)$	$2I(x_m^*:x_a^*) = 7.384$	6
	$2I(x:x_m^*) = 14.435$	12
e) $x(ijk.), x(ij.l), x(..kl)$	$2I(x_e^*:x_m^*) = 1.239$	1
	$2I(x:x_e^*) = 13.196$	11

$$\frac{2I(x:x^*) - 2I(x:x_a^*)}{2I(x:x^*)} = \frac{138.732}{160.551} = 0.86$$

$$\frac{2I(x:x^*) - 2I(x:x_m^*)}{2I(x:x^*)} = \frac{146.116}{160.551} = 0.91$$

$$\frac{2I(x:x^*) - 2I(x:x_e^*)}{2I(x:x^*)} = \frac{147.355}{160.551} = 0.92$$

TABLE 11.3

ANALYSIS OF INFORMATION TABLE

Component Due to	Information	D.F.
a) $x(ijk.), x(i..l), x(.j.l)$	$2I(x:x_a^*) = 21.819$	18
f) $x(ijk.), x(i..l), x(.j.l), x(..kl)$	$2I(x_f^*:x_a^*) = 1.410$	1
	$2I(x:x_f^*) = 20.409$	17

$$\begin{aligned}
& \ln \frac{x_a^*(ijk1)}{x_a^*(ijk2)} = \tau_1^l + \tau_{i1}^{il} + \tau_{j1}^{jl} \\
(11.1) \quad & \ln \frac{x_m^*(ijk1)}{x_m^*(ijk2)} = \tau_1^l + \tau_{i1}^{il} + \tau_{j1}^{jl} + \tau_{ij1}^{ijl} \\
& \ln \frac{x_e^*(ijk1)}{x_e^*(ijk2)} = \tau_1^l + \tau_{i1}^{il} + \tau_{j1}^{jl} + \tau_{11}^{kl} + \tau_{ij1}^{ijl}
\end{aligned}$$

We recall that parameters with indices $i = 4$ and/or $j = 3$ and/or $k = 2$ and/or $l = 2$ are by convention set equal to zero.

We remark that $x_m^*(ijkl)$, determined by fitting the marginals $x(ijk.)$, $x(ij.l)$, is expressible explicitly as

$$(11.2) \quad x_m^*(ijkl) = x(ijk.)x(ij.l)/x(ij..)$$

and is the estimate under a null hypothesis that race and success are conditionally independent given home region and level of education. In Analysis of Information Table 11.2 the value $2l(x:x_m^*) = 14.435$, 12 degrees of freedom, indicates an acceptable fit of this model. Furthermore, $2l(x_e^*:x_m^*) = 1.239$, one degree of freedom, implies that the additional effect of the marginal $x(..kl)$ is not significant or that in the parametric representation of the log-odds in (11.1) the parameter τ_{11}^{kl} measuring the effect of race on the dependent variable success is not significant. We therefore investigate the estimate x_m^* in greater detail. The values of $x_m^*(ijkl)$ are given in Table 11.4.

In the expression for the log-odds under x_m^* in (11.1) τ_1^l is an overall average, τ_{i1}^{il} and τ_{j1}^{jl} are the effects of home region and level of education on program completion and τ_{ij1}^{ijl} is the interaction effect of home region $\times$ level of education on program completion. The numerical values of the tau parameters are given in Table 11.5. We recall that by convention parameters with an index corresponding to $i = 4$ and/or $j = 3$ and/or $l = 2$ are equal to zero.

TABLE 11.5

VALUES OF PARAMETERS IN LOG-ODDS FOR x_m^* IN (11.1)

$\tau_1^{\ell} = -4.454347$	$\tau_{111}^{ij\ell} = -0.292478$
$\tau_{11}^{i\ell} = 0.728653$	$\tau_{121}^{ij\ell} = -0.689433$
$\tau_{21}^{i\ell} = 0.041549$	$\tau_{211}^{ij\ell} = -0.602435$
$\tau_{31}^{i\ell} = -1.632427$	$\tau_{221}^{ij\ell} = -1.003045$
$\tau_{11}^{j\ell} = 1.312903$	$\tau_{311}^{ij\ell} = 1.137932$
$\tau_{21}^{j\ell} = 0.648130$	$\tau_{321}^{ij\ell} = 0.360697$

From the parametric representation of the log-odds in (11.1) and the values in Table 11.5 one can determine differences in the log-odds associated with changes in various categories. Thus the differences in the log-odds (fail to pass) as one changes the home region, for fixed level of education, are given by

	E-N	E-W	E-S
Below H.S.	0.9970	0.7287	0.4362
H.S.	1.0007	1.3110	0.0392
Above H.S.	0.6871	2.3611	0.7287

The differences in the log-odds as one changes the level of education for fixed home region are given by

	Below H.S.-H.S.	H.S.-Above H.S.
East	1.0517	-0.0413
North	1.0654	-0.3549
West	1.4420	1.0088
South	0.6648	0.6481

For easier interpretation, we convert the log-odds values to ratios of the odds of failure.

	E/N	E/W	E/S
Below H.S.	2.7	2.1	1.6
H.S.	2.7	3.7	1.0
Above H.S.	2.0	10.6	2.1

	Below H.S./H.S.	H.S./Above H.S.
East	2.9	0.96
North	2.9	0.70
West	4.2	2.7
South	1.9	1.9

Note that the odds of failure in training of a man with home region East and Above H.S. level of education are 10.6 times the odds of a man with the same level of education but home region West.

Men with home region East or North but with level of education H.S. do better than men with same home region but Above H.S. level of education.

We have also computed the odds of failure $x_m^*(ijkl)/x_m^*(ijk2)$ and listed the results in increasing values. The odds are expressed to 1,000, that is, 5 to 1,000, 6 to 1,000, etc.

Home region	Level of Education	Odds
West	Above H.S.	2
West	H.S.	6
North	H.S.	9
South	Above H.S.	12
North	Above H.S.	12
South	H.S.	22
East	H.S.	23
East	Above H.S.	24
North	Below H.S.	25
West	Below H.S.	26
South	Below H.S.	43
East	Below H.S.	67

Note that the overall odds of failure for this data are $311/13742 = 0.0226$ or 2%.

For ease of comparison and inference, we also list the foregoing results by home region and level of education.

	West	North	South	East
Above H.S.	2	12	12	24
H.S.	6	9	22	23
Below H.S.	26	25	43	67

12. Outliers

We define outliers as observations in one or more cells of a contingency table which apparently deviate significantly from a fitted model. These outliers may lead one to reject a model which fits the other observations. For example, in multi-dimensional contingency tables in which time or age is one of the classifications there may occur an age effect such that a model may be rejected for the entire table but a model taking the possible age effect into account may lead to an acceptable partitioning of the model.

In other cases even though a model seems to fit, the outliers contribute much more than reasonable to the measure of deviation between the data and the fitted values of the model. In other words, the outliers make up a large percentage of the "unexplained variation" $2I(x:x^*)$.

A clue to possible outliers is provided by the output of the computer program. In the computer output for each estimate five entries are

listed for each cell. The i th of these is titled *OUTLIER* and its numerical value provides a lower bound for the decrease in the corresponding $2I(x;x^*)$ if that cell were not included in the fitting procedure. Since the reduction in the degree of freedom is one for each omitted cell, values of *OUTLIER* greater than say 3.5 are of interest. The basis for the *OUTLIER* computation and interpretation follows. Let x_a^* denote the minimum discrimination information estimate subject to certain marginal restraints. Let x_b^* denote the minimum discrimination information estimate subject to the same marginal restraints as x_a^* except that the value $x(\omega_1)$, say, is not included, so that $x_b^*(\omega_1) = x(\omega_1)$. The basic additivity property of the minimum discrimination information statistics states that

$$2I(x;x_a^*) = 2I(x_b^*;x_a^*) + 2I(x;x_b^*)$$

or

$$2I(x;x_a^*) - 2I(x;x_b^*) = 2I(x_b^*;x_a^*).$$

These results are summarized in the Analysis of Information Table 12.1

TABLE 12.1
ANALYSIS OF INFORMATION TABLE

Component due to	Information	D.F.
$H_a :$	$2I(x;x_a^*)$	N_a
$H_b :$ Same as H_a but omitting $x(\omega_1)$	$2I(x_b^*;x_a^*)$	1
	$2I(x;x_b^*)$	$N_b = N_a - 1$

But

$$(12.1) \quad 2I(x;x_a^*) = \left(\sum_{\omega \neq \omega_1} \left(\frac{x_b^*(\omega)}{x_a^*(\omega)} - 1 \right) + \sum_{\omega = \omega_1} \frac{x_b^*(\omega)}{x_a^*(\omega)} \ln \frac{x_b^*(\omega)}{x_a^*(\omega)} \right) \\ + \left(x(\omega_1) \ln \frac{x(\omega_1)}{x_a^*(\omega_1)} + \sum_{\omega \neq \omega_1} x_b^*(\omega) \ln \frac{x_b^*(\omega)}{x_a^*(\omega)} \right),$$

and using the convexity property which implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
 (12.2) \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_b^*(\omega_i) &= n \frac{x_b^*(\omega_1)}{x_a^*(\omega_1)} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_b^*(\omega_i) \right) \frac{n - x_b^*(\omega_1)}{n - x_a^*(\omega_1)} \\
 &= (n - x_b^*(\omega_1)) \frac{n - x_b^*(\omega_1)}{n - x_a^*(\omega_1)},
 \end{aligned}$$

we get from (12.1) that

$$\begin{aligned}
 (12.3) \quad 2I(x_b^*:x_a^*) &\geq 2 \left(x(\omega_1) \frac{x(\omega_1)}{x_a^*(\omega_1)} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_b^*(\omega_i) \right) \frac{n - x_b^*(\omega_1)}{n - x_a^*(\omega_1)} \right) \\
 &= 2 \left(x(\omega_1) \frac{x(\omega_1)}{x_a^*(\omega_1)} + (n - x(\omega_1)) \frac{n - x(\omega_1)}{n - x_a^*(\omega_1)} \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

The last value can be computed and is listed as the OUTLIER entry for each cell of the computer output for the estimate x_a^* . We remark that a separate outlier computation for each cell is time consuming.

The ratio

$$(12.4) \quad \frac{2I(x:x_a^*) - 2I(x:x_b^*)}{2I(x:x_a^*)} = \frac{2I(x_b^*:x_a^*)}{2I(x:x_a^*)}$$

then indicates the percentage of the "unexplained variation" due to the outlier value.

We shall illustrate the outlier procedures and analysis using data originally given by H.F. Dorn (The relationship of cancer of the lung and the use of tobacco. American Statistician, 8(1954), 7-13) and analyzed by J. Cornfield (A statistical problem arising from retrospective studies, Proc. 3rd Berkeley Symposium 4(1956), 135-148).

Cox (1970) considers a model in which the logistic difference is the same for k independent 2×2 contingency tables. He defines a residual which should behave approximately like the residuals for a random sample from the unit normal distribution. He illustrates his graphical analysis with the data originally given by Dorn and analyzed by Cornfield as mentioned above.

In Table 12.1 are listed the observations from 14 retrospective studies on the possible association between smoking and lung cancer. We denote the occurrences in the three-way $14 \times 2 \times 2$ contingency table by $x(ijk)$ with the notation

Variable Index		1	2	3	...	14
Study	i	No. 1	No. 2	No. 3	...	No. 14
Patients	j	Control	Lung cancer			
Smoking	k	Non-smoker	Smoker			

Does this data show association between smoking and lung cancer, and if so, is the association homogeneous over the 14 studies? Here the measure of association is the logarithm of the cross-product ratio.

Table 12.1

Random Retrospective Study of the
Association Between Smoking
And lung Cancer

Study	Control Patients		Lung Cancer Patients	
	Non-Smokers	Smokers	Non-Smokers	Smokers
1	14	72	3	83
2	43	227	3	90
3	19	81	7	129
4	125	397	12	70
5	131	299	32	412
6	114	666	8	597
7	12	174	5	88
8	61	1296	7	1350
9	27	106	3	60
10	81	534	13	459
11	54	246	4	724
12	56	462	19	499
13	636	1729	29	451
14	23	259	5	260

The hypothesis of conditional independence given the study

$$(12.5) \quad H_a: \frac{p(ijk)}{p(i\cdot\cdot)} = \frac{p(ij\cdot)}{p(i\cdot\cdot)} \frac{p(i\cdot k)}{p(i\cdot\cdot)}$$

imposes the restraints on the estimate $x_a^*(ijk)$ that

$$(12.6) \quad x_a^*(ij\cdot) = x(ij\cdot) \text{ and } x_a^*(i\cdot k) = x(i\cdot k) .$$

In fact $x_a^*(ijk)$ may be explicitly represented by

$$(12.7) \quad x_a^*(ijk) = x(ij\cdot)x(i\cdot k)/x(i\cdot\cdot) .$$

Similarly the hypothesis of no second-order interaction

$$(12.8) \quad H_2: p(ijk) = a(ij)b(ik)c(jk)$$

imposes the restraints on the estimate $x_2^*(ijk)$ that

$$(12.9) \quad x_2^*(ij\cdot) = x(ij\cdot), \quad x_2^*(i\cdot k) = x(i\cdot k), \quad x_2^*(\cdot jk) = x(\cdot jk) .$$

The estimate $x_2^*(ijk)$ cannot be represented as an explicit function of the observed marginals.

In this study, the minimum discrimination information statistics are log-likelihood ratio chi-squares and the associated Analysis of Information table permits us to test the goodness-of-fit of the estimates, also the effect

on adding the statistical restraint $x(\cdot, jk)$ to the marginal restraints $x(i, j)$ and $x(i, k)$, on the significance of the common interaction parameter for all 14 studies associated with $x(\cdot, jk)$

$$(12.10) \quad \chi^2_{11} = \chi^2 \frac{x_2^*(i11)x_2^*(i22)}{x_2^*(i12)x_2^*(i21)}, \quad i=1,2,\dots,14.$$

We recall that the log-odds of control to lung cancer for the estimates x_a^* and x_2^* are given by the log-linear representations

$$(12.11) \quad \ln \frac{x_a^*(ilk)}{x_a^*(i2k)} = \tau_1^j + \tau_{11}^{ij}$$

$$\ln \frac{x_2^*(ilk)}{x_2^*(i2k)} = \tau_1^j + \tau_{11}^{ij} + \tau_{11}^{jkl}$$

where the values of the tau parameters depend of course on x_a^* and x_2^* .

Table 12.2
Analysis of Information

Component due to	Information	D.F.
$H_a: x(i, j), x(i, k)$	$2I(x: x_a^*) = 549.74$	14
$H_b: x(i, j), x(i, k), x(\cdot, jk)$	$2I(x_2^*: x_b^*) = 499.55$	1
	$2I(x: x_2^*) = 55.19$	13

The value of $2I(x:x_d^*)$ when compared to the α -th percentile of a χ^2_{14} distribution suggests that the null hypothesis of no association between stomach and lung cancer conditioned on the study is false. This conditional hypothesis allows the accumulation of information from different studies without imposing the requirement that the population characteristics of each study be similar. The rejection of this conditional independence hypothesis is of course expected. The degree of departure from independence is functionally dependent on the study. Is this dependence the result of a small subset of the studies which are substantially different from the remainder, or does the departure vary along a continuum?

The value of $2I(x_2^*:x_b^*)$ suggests that in accordance with (12.10) the value of $\tau_{11}^{jk}=1.687$ is significantly different from zero. Moreover, $2I(x:x_2^*)$ is also significant when compared to the α -th percentile of a χ^2_{13} distribution. The value of $2I(x:x_2^*)$ suggests that we reject the null hypothesis of no second-order interaction, that is, the model with a common value of the interaction parameter τ_{11}^{jk} , is not a good fit. The values of x_2^* are given in Table 12.3. We now proceed to determine the outliers.

Table 12.3

 $\chi^2_{(1)}(k)$

Study	Control Patients		Lung Cancer Patients	
	Non-Smokers	Smokers	Non-Smokers	Smokers
1	14.01	71.99	2.99	83.01
2	42.86	227.14	3.14	89.86
3	19.99	80.11	6.01	129.99
4	132.16	389.83	4.84	77.16
5	130.03	300.00	32.97	410.99
6	105.06	674.94	16.94	588.06
7	15.47	170.53	1.54	91.47
8	57.06	1299.93	10.94	1346.08
9	27.15	105.85	2.85	60.15
10	85.21	529.79	13.79	463.21
11	38.62	261.39	19.38	708.62
12	62.23	455.77	12.77	505.23
13	643.32	1721.66	31.69	458.33
14	27.84	259.16	5.17	259.84

Examination of the computer output for x_2^* using all 14 studies showed a largest OUTLIER value of 18.14 for the cell (11,2,1). A new estimate fitting the marginals $x(ij.)$, $x(i.k)$, $x(.jk)$ and omitting the cell (11,2,1) was obtained. In fact Study 11 was omitted because with the constraints for the new estimate $x_b^*(11,j,k) = x(11,j,k)$. Since this estimate yielded

$$(12.12) 2I(x:x_b^*) = 28.40, \quad 12 \text{ d.f.}$$

the deletion procedure was continued. We summarize the results in Table 12.4 and Analysis of Information Table 12.5.

Table 12.4

Fitting $x(ij.)$, $x(i.k)$, $x(.jk)$ with sequential deletion of studies

Study No.s	Largest OUTLIER		Information	D.F.
	Cell	Value		
1-14	(11,2,1)	18.14	$2I(x:x_2^*) = 55.19$	13
1-10, 12-14	(6,2,1)	7.89	$2I(x:x_b^*) = 28.40$	12
1-5, 7-10, 12-14	(4,2,1)	4.87	$2I(x:x_c^*) = 18.03$	11
1-3, 5, 7-10, 12-14	(7,2,1)	3.91	$2I(x:x_d^*) = 11.94$	10
1-3, 5, 7-10, 12-14			$2I(x:x_g^*) = 7.03$	9

Table 12.5

Analysis of Information

Component due to	Information	D.F.
All 14 studies	$2I(x:x_2^*)=55.19$	13
Less 11	$2I(x_b^*:x_2^*)=26.79$	1
	$2I(x:x_b^*)=28.40$	12
Less 11,6	$2I(x_c^*:x_b^*)=10.37$	1
	$2I(x:x_c^*)=18.03$	11
Less 11,6,4	$2I(x_d^*:x_c^*)=6.08$	1
	$2I(x:x_d^*)=11.94$	10
Less 11,6,4,7	$2I(x_e^*:x_d^*)=4.92$	1
	$2I(x:x_e^*)=7.03$	9

Since $(2I(x:x_2^*) - 2I(x:x_e^*))/2I(x:x_2^*)$
 $= 2I(x_e^*:x_2^*)/2I(x:x_2^*) = 48.16/55.19=0.87$ we see that the
four studies numbered 4,6,7,11 contributed 87% of the
"unexplained variation" $2I(x:x_2^*)$. The values of the
estimate x_e^* are given in Table 12.6. The value of the
log cross-product ratio is

$$(12.13) \quad \phi_{11}^{jk} = \ell_n \frac{x_e^*(i11) x_e^*(i22)}{x_e^*(i12) x_e^*(i21)} = 1.55, \quad i=1-3,5,8-10,12-14.$$

Table 12.6

 $\chi^2_c(ijk)$

Study	Control Patients		Lung Cancer Patients	
	Non-Smokers	Smokers	Non-Smokers	Smokers
1	13.79	72.32	3.32	82.69
2	42.46	227.53	3.54	89.47
3	19.40	80.60	6.60	129.40
5	126.85	303.18	36.15	407.83
8	55.79	1301.21	12.21	1344.80
9	26.80	106.20	3.20	59.80
10	83.61	531.39	15.39	461.62
12	60.81	457.20	14.19	503.81
13	639.35	1725.64	35.66	454.36
14	27.24	259.76	5.76	259.24

We note that Cox (1970) in analyzing the data of Table 12.1 concluded that studies 8, 6, and 11 were outliers. For the 14 studies he found a residual sum of squares 47.7 with 13 degrees of freedom. With studies 8, 6, and 11 omitted he found a residual sum of squares 15.1 with 10 degrees of freedom. (Cox (1970) p. 83 gives the degrees of freedom as 11, a misprint).

Following the procedure described when Studies 6, 8, and 11 were omitted the results led to the Analysis of Information Table 12.7. Note that omitting Studies 11, 6, 4 as per Table 12.5 accounts for more of the unexplained variation.

Table 12.7

Analysis of Information

Component due to	Information	D.F.
All 14 studies	$2I(x:x_2^*)=55.19$	13
Less 6, 8, 11	$2I(x_F^*:x_2^*)=41.62$	3
	$2I(x:x_F^*)=13.57$	10

The sequential procedure discussed herein was also applied to data relating father and son professions

published by Karl Pearson (1904), "On the theory of contingency and its relation to association and normal correlation," reprinted in Karl Pearson's Early Papers, Cambridge University Press, 1948, and considered by Fienberg (1969) and Good (1956). Using the Pearson data Fienberg obtained an $\chi^2 = 184.9$ with 44 out of 196 cells deleted whereas the sequential procedure led to an $\chi^2 = 155.3$ with 25 cells deleted.

13. Zero Marginals

As may be noted from the analysis in Section 11, zero occurrences in cells of the observed contingency table present no special problem provided that no marginal entering into the fitting specification is zero. When the latter is the case, however, the interpretation may be distorted because of inflated degrees of freedom. A procedure to circumvent this problem is similar to that used for getting revised estimates when outliers are indicated. We shall present the procedure in terms of a specific example.

The following data resulted from a study of Christmas tree consumption. We are indebted to Dipl. Forstwirt Dietrich V. Staden, Institut f. Forstbenutzung, Universitaet Goettingen for the data and permission to use it. In Table 13.1 are listed responses to the question "Did you have a Christmas tree in your apartment/house last year or not?" according to size of household and size of city. We denote the occurrences

in the three-way $2 \times 9 \times 5$ contingency table by $x(ijk)$ with the notation

Variable	Index	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Tree	i	Yes	No						
Household size	j	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
City size	k	<2000	2000 to 20000	20000 to 100000	100000 to 500000	500000 or more			

For a $2 \times 9 \times 5$ $R \times C \times D$ contingency table we compute an estimate under a hypothesis of no second-order interaction by fitting all the two-way marginals. Call this estimate $x_2^*(ijk)$. A test for the null hypothesis of no second-order interaction is given by

$$2 \sum_{ijk} x(ijk) \ln \frac{x(ijk)}{x_2^*(ijk)} = 21(x:x_2^*) , \quad 32 \text{ D.F.}$$

If there is no second-order interaction then the associations between R and C, R and D, C and D are the same for all values of the third variable, that is,

$$\ln \frac{x_2^*(1jk) x_2^*(2jk)}{x_2^*(2jk) x_2^*(1jk)} \text{ depends only on } j,$$

$$\ln \frac{x_2^*(1jk) x_2^*(2j5)}{x_2^*(2jk) x_2^*(1j5)} \text{ depends only on } k,$$

$$\ln \frac{x_2^*(ijk) x_2^*(i95)}{x_2^*(i95) x_2^*(ijk)} \text{ is independent of } i.$$

Within this model a test whether the marginal $x(i \cdot k)$ contributes significantly is obtained by computing an estimate fitting the marginals $x(ij \cdot)$, $x(\cdot jk)$ only. Call this estimate $x_B^*(ijk)$, which can be expressed as $x_B^*(ijk) = x(ij \cdot) x(\cdot jk) / x(\cdot j \cdot)$. We recognize $x_B^*(ijk)$ as the estimate under an hypothesis of conditional independence of R and D given C. We now have Analysis of Information Table 13.2.

Table 13.2

Component due to	Information	D.F.
Conditional independence of R and D given C	$2I(x : x_B^*)$	36
Effect of $x(i \cdot k)$ given $x(ij \cdot)$ and $x(\cdot jk)$	$2I(x_2^* : x_B^*)$	4
No second-order interaction	$2I(x : x_2^*)$	52

For the particular data in question however, because $x(ijk)=0$ for $j=6,7,8,9$, $i=2$ and also for some of $i=1$, $j=7,8,9$, the estimates for the entries corresponding to $x^*(ijk)$ for $j=6,7,8,9$ both for x_2^* and x_B^* will not differ from the observed value. Accordingly let us compute an estimate $x_F^*(ijk)$ which is obtained by fitting the two-way marginals of the $2 \times 5 \times 5$ table $j=1,2,3,4,5$ and $x_F^*(ijk)=x(ijk)$, $j=6,7,8,9$. Similarly let $x_C^*(ijk)=x(ij \cdot) x(\cdot jk) / x(\cdot j \cdot)$ for the $2 \times 5 \times 5$ table $j=1,2,3,4,5$ and $x_C^*(ijk)=x(ijk)$, $j=6,7,8,9$.

We now find

Table 13.3

Component due to	Information	D.F.
Conditional independence of R and D given C	$2I(x:x_e^*)=25.532$	20
Effect of $x(i \cdot k)$ given $x(ij \cdot)$ and $x(\cdot jk)$	$2I(x_f^*:x_e^*)=5.821$	4
No second-order interaction	$2I(x:x_f^*)=19.711$	16

Note the reduction in the degrees of freedom between Table 13.2 and Table 13.3. It is also interesting to note that when actually carrying out the procedures for Table 13.2, the same estimates and statistics were obtained as for Table 13.3. See Table 13.4 and 13.5, Table 13.6 and 13.7.

It seems reasonable to conclude that the purchase of a Christmas tree is independent of the size of the city given the size of the household ($j=1,2,3,4,5$) and households of size 6,7,8,9 seem almost sure to buy Christmas trees.

The log-odds for the purchase of a Christmas tree as a function of household size is given in Table 13.8. The probability estimate for a purchase as a function of household size is given in Table 13.9.

Table 13.8

$$\ln (x_e^*(1jk)/x_e^*(2jk)) = \ln (x(1j \cdot)/x(2j \cdot))$$

j=1	-0.2586
2	0.8662
3	2.1702
4	3.4012
5	2.3716

Table 13.9

$x(1j\cdot)/x(\cdot j\cdot)$

j=1	61/140 = 0.4357
2	214/304 = 0.7039
3	219/244 = 0.8975
4	180/186 = 0.9677
5	75/82 = 0.9146

For more complex situations there is also the log-linear analysis, which is of course available for this problem too, but it would not add anything to the analysis of this particular data.

Table 13.1
original data $x(i,j,k)$

		k										
i	j	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
1	1	4	7	6	12	32	61	4.000	7.833	7.815	12.046	29.240
1	2	13	37	35	41	63	214	17.253	38.835	56.204	40.865	63.844
1	3	20	45	52	41	61	210	21.123	46.332	47.951	40.955	62.588
1	4	25	40	38	32	47	180	24.364	41.263	38.056	31.098	45.213
1	5	11	31	14	11	8	75	11.193	28.680	14.974	12.036	8.115
1	6	4	8	12	1	6	31	4.000	6.000	12.000	1.000	6.000
1	7	3	0	2	1	1	7	3.000	0.000	2.000	1.000	1.000
1	8	2	0	1	0	1	4	2.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000
1	9	0	1	0	0	1	2	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	1.000
2	1	4	13	9	13	40	79	3.933	12.167	7.184	12.953	42.763
2	2	5	18	19	15	33	90	5.747	19.166	17.795	15.134	32.157
2	3	3	8	0	4	10	25	1.877	6.618	4.050	4.046	8.410
2	4	0	3	1	0	2	6	0.636	1.731	0.945	0.903	1.786
2	5	1	1	2	2	1	7	0.807	3.319	1.026	0.964	0.884
2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Table 13.4
 $x_2^*(ijk)$ 219X5

Table 13.5
 $x_2^*(ijk)$
k

		k				
i	j	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	4.000	7.833	7.815	12.046	29.240
1	2	17.253	38.835	56.204	40.865	63.844
1	3	21.123	46.332	47.915	40.955	62.588
1	4	24.364	41.263	38.056	31.098	45.213
1	5	11.193	28.680	14.974	12.036	8.115
1	6	4	8	12	1	6
1	7	3	0	2	1	1
1	8	2	0	1	0	1
1	9	0	1	0	0	1
2	1	3.933	12.167	7.184	12.953	42.763
2	2	5.747	19.166	17.795	15.134	32.157
2	3	1.877	6.618	4.050	4.046	8.410
2	4	0.636	1.731	0.945	0.903	1.786
2	5	0.807	3.319	1.026	0.964	0.884
2	6	0	0	0	0	0
2	7	0	0	0	0	0
2	8	0	0	0	0	0
2	9	0	0	0	0	0

$$X(100) = N(15.6) \cdot X(100) / X(100) \quad 2 \times 5 \times 5$$

$$X(100) = N(15.7) \cdot X(100) / X(100)$$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000
2	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000
3	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000
4	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000
5	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000
6	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000
7	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000
8	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000
9	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000
10	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.00000000

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15. Bibliography

The bibliography lists publications on contingency table analysis through 1972. Additional references to related topics may be found in the bibliographies contained in the books by D. R. Cox (1970) and H. O. Lancaster (1969). We will appreciate your calling our attention to possible references omitted from the bibliography.

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20. → The analysis of the information in contingency tables is an aspect of multivariate (multiple variates) analysis with particular application to qualitative or categorical as well as quantitative variables.

→ The analysis is concerned with counts in multiway cross-classifications or multiway contingency tables. Multiway contingency tables, or cross-classifications of vectors of discrete random variables, provide a useful approach to the analysis of multivariate discrete data.

→ The method of analysis presented will bring out the various inter-relationships among the classificatory variables in a multiway cross-classification or contingency table in many dimensions.

→ The procedure is based on the Principle of Minimum Discrimination Information Estimation, associated statistics and Analysis of Information. General computer programs are available to provide the necessary results for inference. An analysis of a four-way contingency table is presented for illustration of these techniques.

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